

THE EMPLOYMENT OF HANDICAPPED INDIVIDUALS IN
HOME ECONOMICS-RELATED JOBS AND ITS
EFFECT ON THE FAMILY

By

SUSAN JEANETTE RUSSELL

Bachelor of Science in Home Economics

University of Arkansas

Fayetteville, Arkansas

1978

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College
of the Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Degree of
MASTER OF SCIENCE
December, 1979

Thesis
1979
R767c
cop. 2



THE EMPLOYMENT OF HANDICAPPED INDIVIDUALS IN
HOME ECONOMICS-RELATED JOBS AND ITS
EFFECT ON THE FAMILY

Thesis Approved:

Althea Skright
Thesis Adviser

Frances Stromberg

Margaret J. Collins

Norman A. Durbin
Dean of the Graduate College

1043048

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my appreciation to Dr. Margaret Callsen, for her patience and valuable support throughout our work on the research project. I also wish to express appreciation to Dr. Althea Wright, my major adviser, for her encouragement and interest in my research and for her assistance and advice in preparing the thesis. In addition, thanks is extended to Dr. Frances Stromberg, a member of my committee, for her guidance and suggestions.

I wish to thank the employers I contacted for their cooperation and interest in the research by providing the names of employees and setting up a time and place for the interviews during business hours. Appreciation is also extended to the employees who participated in the interviews.

To my family and fiancé, I wish to express sincere thanks for their understanding and continued support during my graduate studies. I would like to express a special note of thanks to my parents, Mr. and Mrs. John Russell, for their encouragement and financial support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION.	1
Statement of the Problem	2
Purposes and Objectives.	2
Definition of Terms.	4
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.	6
Employment of the Handicapped.	6
Attitudes Toward the Handicapped	10
Employer Attitudes.	10
Attitudes of Others	15
Changing Attitudes.	17
Architectural Barriers	18
Legislation.	19
Education.	23
Rehabilitation	27
Conclusion	30
III. PROCEDURE	32
Selection of the Subjects.	32
Development of the Instrument.	32
Validity	33
Administration of the Instrument	35
Analysis of Data	35
IV. RESULTS	37
Description of Subjects.	37
Job Characteristics of the Subjects.	39
Job Satisfaction of the Subjects	42
Employment Problems of the Subjects.	46
Family Involvement in the Employment Decision.	48
Effect of Employment on the Family and the Subject.	52
V. SUMMARY	57
Discussion	58
Limitations.	62
Recommendations.	63

	Page
A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY.	64
APPENDIXES	68
APPENDIX A - LETTER TO EMPLOYER REQUESTING ASSISTANCE IN CONTACTING EMPLOYEES.	69
APPENDIX B - LETTER REQUESTING EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION . .	71
APPENDIX C - EMPLOYEE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE.	73

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Demographic Characteristics of the Subjects	38
II. Subjects' Handicaps as Perceived by Their Employer. . .	40
III. Job Characteristics of the Subjects	41
IV. Job Satisfaction of the Subjects.	43
V. Employment Problems of the Subjects	47
VI. Family Involvement in the Employment Decision	49
VII. Effect of Employment on the Family and the Subject. . .	53

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In the past few years, national concern for and commitment to vocational education, placement, and employment of the handicapped has emerged. According to the 1970 United States Census, one out of every 11 American adults is handicapped (Facts About Handicapped People), 1977; Halloran, 1978). Of the totally disabled, 76% of the men and 87% of the women are not in the labor force (Humphreys, 1978).

Legislation enacted has broken down some of the architectural and attitudinal barriers to employment of the handicapped. The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 was enacted to protect the civil rights of the handicapped, especially in employment. The President's and the Governors' Committees on Employment of the Handicapped have brought to the attention of the employers the benefits of employing the handicapped. The Vocational Rehabilitation Administration has provided rehabilitation and placement services for the handicapped. In placement, the individual's abilities rather than disabilities are emphasized. Investments in rehabilitation of a handicapped person to full employment will be repaid to the public within three years through their income tax (Angel, 1969).

As part of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, home economics teachers are becoming involved in teaching the handicapped

vocational skills (Griffith, 1977). Training in vocational skills may give the handicapped individual a better chance of getting a job.

Statement of the Problem

After the handicapped individual becomes employed, he may have other problems. The employment problems of these handicapped individuals have not been identified adequately by other studies. Employers, educators, rehabilitation counselors, and family members can use information about the employment problems of handicapped individuals to assist them in their adjustment to the work situation. Knowledge is also needed about the effect of the employment of the handicapped individual on his family because the family plays an important role in the individual's adjustment.

This information will be useful to individuals who work with the handicapped or who teach others to work with them. This information will also be valuable to other home economists, especially home economic teachers at the high school and college levels. In the future more home economics teachers will be teaching vocational home economics to handicapped students so these students will have the skills needed to get a job.

Purposes and Objectives

The purposes of the study are to determine (1) the skills which handicapped individuals can use to obtain home economics-related jobs and (2) the effect of their employment on their family. The following are the objectives of the study:

1. To develop an interview schedule to collect information from handicapped employees concerning:
 - a) personal demographic information
 - b) education and training of the handicapped employee
 - c) the type of home economics-related job in which the handicapped individual is employed
 - d) changes in the job
 - e) job satisfaction and performance
 - f) employment problems of handicapped individuals
 - g) their families and encouragement by the families to get a job
 - h) the effect of their employment on their families
2. To obtain the names of handicapped employees who are willing to participate in an interview.
3. To test the interview schedule with a small urban sample of handicapped employees in home economics-related jobs.
4. To analyze the responses to determine in what types of home economics-related jobs handicapped individuals can find employment, problems employees have in their jobs which are related to their handicap, the type of schooling or training which prepared the employees for their jobs, changes that have been made to help the employees adjust to their jobs, and the effect of their employment on their families.
5. To provide information about the study to others interested in handicapped employees through a thesis and a joint report with the project director.

Definition of Terms

In the study, the following terms are used. Definitions of the terms are:

Home Economics-Related Jobs refers to housekeeping and laundry, dishwasher, food preparation, waitress or waiter, bus boy, or child care assistant in the following businesses: child care centers, hotels and motels, restaurants, hospitals, nursing homes, and school lunch rooms.

Handicapped individuals are those who are deaf, hard of hearing, mentally retarded, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, other health impaired or have specific disabilities, and who, because of those impairments, require special education and related services (The Education for All Handicapped Children Act, Public Law 94-142).

Rehabilitation is the restoration of the handicapped to the fullest physical, mental, social, vocational, and economic usefulness of which they are capable (Bridges, 1946).

Family refers to anyone who is related to a person by marriage or by birth, such as husband, wife, parents, sister, brother, son, or daughter.

Employment Problems are anything which has made it difficult for the individual to do his job because of his handicap.

Job Satisfaction is defined by the employee's answer to questions concerning what he likes and dislikes about his job and employer.

Effect of Employment on the Family is defined by questions on the interview schedule concerning changes the family has made and the gains

and losses which the individual and family have experienced due to the employment of the handicapped individual.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Employment of the Handicapped

The number of handicapped people in America is much larger than most people think. One in every 11 persons is handicapped (Facts About Handicapped People, 1977). More than 40 million Americans are handicapped--blind, crippled, deaf, mentally retarded, or disabled in some other way (Garner, 1978). According to the 1970 census report, there is a total of 121,000,000 adults in America in the employable age range of 16 to 64 years (One in Eleven: Handicapped Adults in America, 1975). Of these adults, 9% of the employable population (11,265,000 persons) have disabilities which have existed for six months or longer.

The major problem for the handicapped individual seeking employment is getting a job, not just keeping one. The handicapped "should be judged on an individual basis without a preconceived idea--just the way everybody else should be judged" (Betts, 1977, p. 63). This has not been done in the past. Among the major problems which have fostered congressional action in this area are: high unemployment rates, underutilization of the handicapped work force, discriminatory practices in employment of handicapped individuals, lack of appropriate occupational training opportunities, and occupational stereotyping (Phelps, 1977). A high proportion of joblessness exists. When given

a chance, however, the handicapped often match or exceed the productivity and performance of non-handicapped workers (Garner, 1978).

Many handicapped persons are underemployed, working in jobs beneath their capabilities (Halloran, 1978). Disabled adults often find it difficult to get jobs in the field of their choice. If possible, the disabled are expected to work, but only in jobs which society considers appropriate and is willing to make adjustments to accommodate them (Hewett, Newson, & Newson, 1970).

Three out of every four physically disabled and nine out of every ten mentally impaired individuals can work in either competitive settings or sheltered workshops, though most are not employed. In 1970, 42% of the handicapped adults were employed compared with 59% of the general adult population (Facts About Handicapped People, 1977). Unemployment among the handicapped able to work is as high as 40% (Garner, 1978).

The handicapped also have much lower incomes. The average handicapped person's income is about \$1,000 below the average for the total population (Facts About Handicapped People, 1977). Of the totally disabled, 37% have incomes below the poverty level (Humphreys, 1978).

More adapting of jobs and work places is needed to allow the handicapped to succeed. Equipment is often out of reach or not adapted to special physical needs, working schedules are rigid, and employers are unaware that help in making adjustments is available (Halloran, 1978).

Why should the handicapped work at all? The main reason seems to be to enable them to enjoy the personal gains from employment. Most

handicapped people do not want favors. They want and are entitled to fair consideration for employment on the basis of their abilities-- intellectual and physical.

The continued use of the term handicapped by a rehabilitation counselor draws to the attention of the employer the individual's disabilities rather than his capacity to accomplish a job. The counselor should remind the employer that everyone is handicapped or at a disadvantage at certain times and in certain situations. To assist handicapped individuals in the fair consideration by a prospective employer, a counselor should stress that most disabled people have more ability than disability.

The handicapped person can benefit by becoming involved in the community. Handicapped people want to participate in community activities with other people and the community benefits from this. In instances where a handicapped person is employed or active in the mainstream, people have said this person had added considerably to the lives of the people around them (Betts, 1977).

For those handicapped persons with a job, "work has a therapeutic value"; work creates "a sense of belonging, and acts as a stimulus to further effort" (Tindall, 1975, p. 47). Although several billion dollars are spent every year to support handicapped persons dependent on society (General Accounting Office, 1974), society could gain from the investment by "helping the handicapped become productive members of the community" (Tindall, 1975, p. 47).

Employment of the handicapped has been more successful in recent years. However, there will continue to be problems in the future-- especially in finding jobs for the educable mentally retarded. Some

progress is being made in getting jobs for the handicapped other than those traditionally open to them (Tindall, 1975).

Strickland and Arrell (1967) tried to determine the extent to which educable mentally retarded youth found employment in jobs for which they were trained. The data were collected from records of the Division of Vocational Rehabilitation in Texas on 1,405 clients, males and females, employed between July 1, 1963, and August 31, 1965. Some of the youth were employed in jobs related to home economics. The following results were found: Out of the 1,405 youths surveyed, 129 were trained for a job in an occupational area unrelated to the one in which they were employed; however, 80% of the students were placed in jobs for which they had been trained; and 145 had received no specific job training for their job. To become productively employed, 10% of the students needed only counseling, guidance, and direct job placement. The authors concluded that it can be determined what jobs can be performed by mentally retarded youth and that job training can then be obtained in these occupational areas.

The 1974 Comptroller General said, "Educators feel that 75% of the physically disabled and 90% of the mentally retarded could work if given the proper education and training" (General Accounting Office, 1974, p. 1). Edwin Martin (1972), Associate Commissioner Bureau for the Education of the Handicapped, estimated that only 21% of the handicapped children leaving school in the next four years will be fully employed or go on to college. Another 40% will be underemployed and 26% will be unemployed.

Progress in employment of the handicapped can be accomplished by expanding the knowledge of the skills that the handicapped can learn

and by identifying those skills commonly demanded by employers. Changes in attitudes, identifying the work that handicapped persons can perform, and adapting jobs accordingly must start with the handicapped individual. Cooperation in designing and creating jobs that the handicapped can do is needed from teachers, administrators, agencies, employment services, community members, employers, and families directly or indirectly involved with the handicapped.

Attitudes Toward the Handicapped

Employer Attitudes

Attitudinal barriers exist and are responsible for much of the handicapped person's limited access to employment. However, during the past decades, important changes have taken place regarding the employment of the handicapped. Society's attitude has changed from one of prejudice (which assigned the handicapped to a hopeless, non-productive, shut-in existence) to one of rehabilitation, employment, and the opportunity to lead useful lives (Angel, 1969). "The outside world continues to view blind men and women as a pathetically fragile, idle group incapable of competitive employment" (Wacker, 1976, p. 28). In examining the attitudes of employers and professionals, Dorly D. Wang found they tend to have a one-dimensional view of the retarded. As reported in Posner (1974, p. 240), "the image they held was not at all flattering: slow, suggestible, dependent, on the useless side."

The handicapped person who wants to work must overcome a number of attitudinal barriers. Many employers and union officials do not readily accept capable and qualified handicapped applicants (Phelps,

1977). If non-handicapped persons are available, many employers are reluctant to hire handicapped persons whom they do not know, do not understand, and who may or may not take longer to train (Halloran, 1978). Employer resistance to hiring the handicapped is based on three factors: 1) lack of understanding, 2) lack of accurate information, and 3) prejudice and misinformation (Arthur, 1967). Often employers feel uncomfortable interacting socially or in an employer-employee relationship with handicapped people.

Employers give many reasons for not hiring the handicapped. These are: 1) insurance rates will increase, 2) considerable expense will be involved in making necessary adjustments in the work area, 3) safety records will be jeopardized, and 4) other employees will not accept the handicapped (Hiring the Handicapped, 1976; Sears, 1975). All these assumptions have been found to be false, as the following discussion indicates.

Insurance rates do not increase. There is no provision in workmen's compensation insurance policies or rates which penalize an employer for hiring handicapped workers. Workmen's compensation insurance rates are determined by the relative hazards in the work to be performed and a company's accident experience (Angel, 1969).

Barshop (1959) interviewed personnel officers of seven types of industries in New York City about their hiring policies and practices for disabled workers. Two-thirds of the personnel officers said that "it costs more" to hire the disabled, but very few of these employers gave workmen's compensation costs as a reason for not hiring them.

The employers' attitude often is that extensive changes will have to be made in the work facilities and that hiring the handicapped is not worth the added expense. Most companies report that adjustments to work places are minimal (Sears, 1975). Certain simple changes include a lowered work surface, a special desk, ramps, and alternations to make other facilities, such as rest rooms and lounges, accessible.

Assessment of actual on-the-job experience with handicapped workers reveals a picture of average-or-better ratings in those areas which count most with employers--job performance, safety, and attendance (Hiring the Handicapped, 1976). DuPont (Garner, 1978) found evidence supporting the productivity and performance of handicapped workers in a 1973 study of more than 1,400 physically impaired workers. "Supervisors rated 96% of the handicapped workers average or above average on safety performance, 91% average or higher on job performance, and 79% average or better in attendance" (Garner, 1978, p. 15).

The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped reported the results of a survey by the United States Office of Vocational Rehabilitation of more than 100 large corporations concerning their experience with handicapped employees. Of the corporations reporting, 66% said there were no differences between handicapped individuals and able-bodied individuals in productivity; 24% rated handicapped persons higher in productivity; 57% reported lower accident rates for handicapped persons; 55% reported lower absenteeism rates for handicapped persons; and 83% reported lower turnover rates for handicapped persons (Hiring the Handicapped, 1976).

One-third of the personnel officers interviewed by Barshop (1959) said that "impaired workers are 'better' workers." Four employers in

ten believe there are advantages to hiring the impaired. Some advantages mentioned by these employers were that the disabled are more conscientious, less likely to quit, and bring "extraordinary motivation" to a work situation (Barshop, 1959, p. 24).

Non-handicapped workers have been found to be very accepting of handicapped employees. Handicapped workers want to be treated as regular employees; they do not expect special privileges. In the DuPont study very little difference was found between the ability of the handicapped and non-handicapped to work in harmony with supervisors and fellow employees (Hiring the Handicapped, 1976).

In a survey by Williams (1972) of opinions toward slogans such as "Hire the Handicapped - It's Good Business," he tried to find out whether it is good business to hire the handicapped. To determine whether it is profitable, 108 Minnesota employers were asked to compare the extra costs versus the extra benefits of hiring a handicapped applicant over a non-handicapped applicant. From the information collected, the employers in this study did not consider it good business to hire the average handicapped person.

In 1959, the Federation Employment and Guidance Service conducted a survey in New York City of firms hiring 200 or more employees in seven types of light industry (McDaniel, 1976). Personnel officers were interviewed about the company's experience and hiring practices for certain disabilities. The most significant factors found related to willingness to hire physically disabled applicants were: 1) the size of the firm, 2) the employer's past experience with the disabled, 3) the type of disability, and 4) the type of business. The following

discussion gives information from studies which substantiates these factors as determinants of employer's attitudes toward hiring the handicapped.

In a study of 120 employers in Frankfort, Kentucky, the receptivity of employers to hiring the mentally retarded and ex-mental patients was assessed (Hartlage, 1966). Employers did not differentiate between the two types of mental disorders. The manufacturing industries were found most receptive and service industries were least receptive to hiring the mentally handicapped. The size of the industry was an important factor in determining receptivity. Larger employers were more receptive than smaller employers to hiring the mentally handicapped.

Simon Olshansky (1961) conducted a study in Boston on the receptivity of 200 employers toward hiring ex-mental patients. Of these employers, three-fourths expressed a willingness to hire ex-mental patients. During the three year period of the study however, only 27 actually hired known ex-patients. The author reports "almost all employers rehired their own workers who had recovered from mental illness" (Olshansky, 1961, p. 35). In contrast to the above study, this study shows that the small manufacturing employer with less than 100 workers was more likely to hire ex-mental patients.

A study by Barshop (1959) of personnel officers in New York City firms revealed that only about one-third of the firms studied were willing to hire the handicapped. Personnel officers who had past experience with handicapped employees were more likely to actually hire them.

In a study of small businesses in an industrial area in Los Angeles conducted in 1959, 78 personal interviews were made on the business' attitude toward hiring the handicapped (Salzberg, Wine, Seacat, D'Unger, 1961). Among the company representatives surveyed, 54% said they felt that some degree of discrimination existed toward hiring handicapped persons, but 81% of the group believed the handicapped individual should have equal opportunity for employment. The sample seemed generally interested in hiring handicapped applicants. Most employers, however, apparently preferred to hire physically disabled persons rather than those with emotional handicaps. Of the 78 employers interviewed, 45% expressed a willingness to hire someone with a known emotional handicap, but a follow-up study showed that only 13% of them actually hired anyone with a history of mental illness.

Attitudes of Others

The general attitudes toward handicapped persons are formed according to stereotyped images from television, movies, and literature. The handicapped are generally portrayed as non-productive, low functioning, weird people (Pellegrino, Comi, Mente, Munden, & Brown, 1975). Handicapped individuals tend to be devalued by others because their physical appearance or behavior is not considered normal. They are regarded as less capable or competent than is really the case (Phelps, 1977). When society devalues a handicapped individual he will devalue himself.

Society finds it difficult to accept handicapped persons because they are different. Members of our society express non-acceptance by

staring at the disabled in public or by avoiding contact with them whenever possible (Buscaglia, 1975). Many non-handicapped persons do not know or understand the needs and problems of the handicapped. This often causes non-handicapped people to feel uncomfortable in the disabled person's presence (Halloran, 1978).

The handicapped person's behavior is determined to an extent by the labels placed on him or her and on the treatment received from others (Buscaglia, 1975). Rehabilitation counselors have become aware of how tremendously the attitudes of the public toward the severely handicapped influence their employment, social adjustment, and self-concept (Rusalem, 1967). Society's feelings toward the handicapped affect the family and its relationship with the handicapped person (Buscaglia, 1975).

Prejudice leads to grouping the handicapped into categories and to perceiving them in terms of their group, not as individuals (Yuker, 1965). Prejudice toward the handicapped is similar to that toward other minority groups--a person who is prejudiced toward the handicapped believes all handicapped persons are alike.

The handicapped individual needs to be accepted as a person by the members of his family. The family may promote the patient's rehabilitation through their continuous supportive interest and their understanding of the person's aptitudes, restrictions, and vocational goals and plans (Angel, 1969). The aims of the rehabilitation staff may be hindered when the family fails to provide an atmosphere of warmth, acceptance, and encouragement or is unwilling to accept the limitations of the handicap (McDaniel, 1976).

Parents influence to a large extent the success of their handicapped child who has a job or is looking for a job. The handicapped worker's attitude toward his job often depends on what his parents think and say about his job (Merritt, 1963). Particularly damaging to later adjustment is the parents' attitude of guilt and resentment, and the overprotectiveness that results (McDaniel, 1976).

From 1960 to 1962, Barsch (1968) conducted a study of parents in Milwaukee County, Wisconsin, with handicapped children between four and ten years old. The parents participated in interviews concerning the families' attitudes and expectations toward their handicapped child. The parents reported their non-handicapped children had a favorable attitude toward their handicapped siblings. Also, the majority of these families gained support and acceptance from their relatives. The parents expected their handicapped children to become employed--generally having a "normal vocational adulthood" (Barsch, 1968, p. 229).

Changing Attitudes

The existence of prejudice and of a less than receptive attitude toward the handicapped by employers and others has been shown in the previous discussion. The need for change to more favorable attitudes is evident. Before attitudes can change, people must become aware of their attitudes and must want to change them. If a person is aware that he or she is prejudiced and wants to alter his or her viewpoint, it will be possible to bring about a change in attitude (Yuker, 1965). Rehabilitative services have an impact on community attitudes toward

the handicapped through contact with employers, community agencies and organizations, and families (Rusalem, 1967).

Probably the most successful way to change attitudes toward the handicapped is through close personal contact and interaction with a handicapped individual (McDaniel, 1976; Yaker, 1965). The use of contact to change attitudes was supported by a study of 28 girls from a parochial high school in Brooklyn, New York (Rusalem, 1967). High and low attitude groups were determined by scores on a deaf-blind attitude questionnaire. The change in their scores was measured after a six-session program which included contact with deaf-blind persons. The attitudes of the low (negative) group changed significantly in a positive direction, while the attitudes of the high (positive) group did not. It should be noted that the positive attitude group had higher scores than the negative attitude group, even after contact. The authors believed more contact would be needed to produce and sustain a more favorable attitude toward handicapped persons.

Architectural Barriers

Changing the attitudes of employers and the general public is not enough. Architectural barriers that block the normal pursuit of work and the achievement of near-normal living must also be removed (Angel, 1969). Such barriers have prevented many physically handicapped individuals from entering or functioning in certain places of prospective employment (Phelps, 1977). Buildings, travel, public transportation, work areas, and rest rooms are often inaccessible to many persons with physical handicaps.

Some changes are being made to remove architectural barriers. Buildings using government funds are now required by law to be made accessible to the handicapped (Angel, 1969). Also, many states are requiring changes in their public buildings. Businesses are beginning to make their stores and industries accessible to physically handicapped customers and employees. Adjustments to work areas for the handicapped are minimal (Sears, 1975).

The Rehabilitation Act of 1973, Section 504, Subpart C, sets up the following two requirements for program accessibility.

- 1) No qualified handicapped person may be excluded from federally assisted programs or activities because a recipient's facilities are inaccessible or unusable;
- 2) construction of new facilities, as well as alterations that could affect access to, and use of existing facilities, must be designed and constructed so that the facility is accessible to, and useable by, handicapped persons (Section 504 and the New Civil Rights Mandate, 1977, pp. 27-28).

Legislation

Legislation has provided for counseling, training, and placement of the disabled, since the creation of the State-Federal Vocational Rehabilitation Program by the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1920 (Sinick, 1962). This act was enacted to provide training opportunities to handicapped World War I veterans. Amendments to the act have added new services.

The Wagner-Peyser Act of 1933 established the system of public employment services that made available placement and other job finding assistance to the handicapped (Sinick, 1962). The Barden-LaFollette Act of 1943 furnished any vocational rehabilitation services necessary to prepare the handicapped for employment (Clelland,

1978). This act for the first time included services for mentally ill and mentally handicapped individuals. Through the Vocational Rehabilitation Amendment of 1954, the Employment Service was given the major responsibility for promotion and development of employment opportunities for handicapped persons and for job counseling and placement of these persons at the local, state, and federal levels (Clelland, 1978). Under the provision of the amendment, funds were made available for vocational rehabilitation counselors' training grants and for the alteration or expansion of existing rehabilitation facilities and workshops.

Recently, legislation has been enacted to protect the civil rights of all handicapped, especially for equal employment. The Rehabilitation Act of 1973, which became effective June 3, 1977, authorizes assistance to states for use in rehabilitating and preparing the handicapped for gainful employment (General Accounting Office, 1974).

The Rehabilitation Act of 1973 broadened the scope of rehabilitation to include basic civil rights issues, to give the most severely handicapped clients priority for receiving services, and to put more emphasis on job placement (Clelland, 1978). As defined by this act, a handicapped person is anyone who

- 1) has a physical or mental impairment which substantially limits one or more of his major life activities, 2) has a record of such an impairment, or 3) is regarded as having such an impairment (Affirmative Action, 1977).

The regulations of Section 503 and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 will be discussed below because they deal with equal employment opportunities for handicapped individuals.

Section 503 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 focuses on employers with federal contracts for more than \$2,500 (Affirmative Action, 1977). Section 503 requires these employers to establish affirmative action programs for hiring, promotion, and retention of handicapped individuals. "Affirmative Action" also applies to job assignments, promotions, training, transfers, accessibility, working conditions, and termination. The contractors agree not to discriminate against any handicapped person who is qualified to perform the job. Notices stating the employer's obligation to take affirmative action in employment of qualified handicapped employees must be posted in the work place. All handicapped job applicants and employees who want to be covered by affirmative action will be asked to voluntarily identify themselves to the employer.

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 prohibits discrimination on the basis of handicap of any qualified handicapped person from any program or activity receiving federal financial assistance (Phelps, 1977). Schools, colleges, hospitals, nursing homes, facilities, and state vocational rehabilitation agencies are covered by Section 504.

Those receiving funds may not use tests or other selection criteria that screen out handicapped persons. They may not conduct pre-employment medical examinations or make inquiries about the existence or nature of a handicap. The facilities must be accessible and useable by qualified handicapped persons (Section 504 and the New Civil Rights Mandates, 1977).

Both Sections 503 and 504 require that the recipients of funds make reasonable accommodation to the known physical or mental

limitations of a handicapped applicant or employee unless the employer can demonstrate this will impose undue hardship on the operation of the business (Section 504 and the New Civil Rights Mandates, 1977). Reasonable accommodation may include making facilities used by employees readily accessible to and useable by handicapped persons, job restructuring, part-time or modified work schedules, acquisition or modification of equipment or devices, the provision of readers or interpreters, and other similar action (Clelland, 1978). In determining whether an accommodation would impose undue hardship on the business, the factors considered are: 1) the overall size of the program, including the number of employees, the number and type of facilities, and the size of the budget, 2) the type of operation, including the composition and structure of the work force, and 3) the nature and cost of accommodation needed.

Some employers are making changes because of the legislation; however, many employers haven't changed--they haven't even heard of the Act (Sale, 1977). "A five-year study done by Handicare Services, Inc. of New York shows that over 60% of employers don't know what Section 503 is" (Sale, 1977, p. 7). For changes to occur, awareness of the legislation is necessary.

President Truman began the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped to provide information about the handicapped to the public and employers. The committee is made up of about 600 organizations and individuals involved in some way in the rehabilitation and employment of handicapped people (The President's Committee, 1977). The committee reports directly to the President. The chairman and

four vice-chairmen are appointed by the President. The committee purposes are: To conduct continuing campaigns to build a climate of acceptance of handicapped people throughout the United States, and to bring agencies and organizations together to deal with problems and roadblocks impeding full opportunity for handicapped people.

Oklahoma established the Governor's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped by an act passed in 1957 (State Committee Organization, 1964). The committee carries out a continuing program to promote the employment of the physically, mentally, emotionally, and otherwise handicapped citizens of Oklahoma by creating statewide interest in the rehabilitation and employment of the handicapped.

Education

One barrier to employment that many handicapped individuals face is the lack of appropriate education. Vocational training and education programs can provide the handicapped person with the potential and skills needed to gain employment. Few handicapped individuals are receiving vocational education in the public school (Phelps, 1977).

Prior to 1963, placing a handicapped student in a vocational education program was prohibited by law (Pellegrino et al., 1975). Although little attention was given to programs for the handicapped, changes occurred with the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963. With the passage of the Vocational Education Amendments of 1968, support was given to programs for the handicapped in elementary and secondary grades. The federal government specified to each state what portion of the vocational budget should be used for the handicapped.

Through these amendments special education students are allowed to participate in any public programs they desire and the school district is required to accommodate them. The Education of the Handicapped Act of 1966 provided 2.5 million dollars in 1967 to help states operate education programs for handicapped children (Boyer, 1979).

According to the 1970 census, approximately 60% of the estimated seven million handicapped children in the United States do not receive appropriate educational services enabling them to have equality of opportunity (General Accounting Office, 1974). Vocational programs have not provided for the special needs of handicapped students and for the development of their unused talents (Pellegrino et al., 1975). With this expanding need for education of the handicapped came new legislation.

The Education of All Handicapped Children Act, an amendment to the 1966 act, was passed in 1975. The law requires that every state and local education agency receiving federal funds provide a free and appropriate public education for all handicapped children ages 3 to 21, regardless of the nature or severity of a child's handicap (Boyer, 1979; Phelps, 1977). The law specifies that these schools must:

- 1) make every reasonable effort to locate handicapped children and give first priority to the most severely disabled, 2) evaluate the learning needs of each child and develop an individual education program to meet these needs, 3) place each child in the least restricted environment possible, whether this be a hospital, a state institution, a private day school, a public school special education program, or a regular classroom, and 4) periodically evaluate the child's progress

and make program changes if needed, with parents and specialists' advice (Boyer, 1979). Handicapped students must be educated if possible with non-handicapped students.

Separate schools, special classes or other removal of any handicapped child from the regular program are only allowed if and when the school district can show that the use of a regular educational environment accompanied by supplementary aids and services is not adequate to give the child what he/she needs (Sarason & Doris, 1977, p. 6).

In other related legislation, the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, Section 504, provides for nondiscrimination toward the handicapped in any education program receiving federal funds (Section 504 and the New Civil Rights Mandates, 1978). According to this act, a free appropriate public education in the most normal setting feasible must be provided to qualified handicapped persons. A "free appropriate education in the most normal setting feasible" means that the school must either educate children in regular classrooms or provide them with a special educational service at no cost to parents (Clelland, 1978). The education these children receive should be as much like other student's as possible and must meet the standards of the state department of education. Under the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, by September 1, 1980, vocational education programs must be available, without cost, to all handicapped students up to 21 years of age (Tindall, 1978).

In connection with recent legislation, some mainstreaming is being done. Mainstreaming is the placing of handicapped students in regular classrooms. Today, vocational educators, including home economics teachers, are faced with the problems of teaching the handicapped students who are mainstreamed into their classes (Griffith,

1977). Recently, "mainstreaming" is being replaced by the terms "least restrictive environment" or "most normal setting feasible."

In Pennsylvania schools, 106 vocational education programs have been operating especially for mentally retarded youth (Pellegrino et al., 1975). "During the 1973-74 school year, approximately 800 handicapped children were enrolled in regular vocational programs" (Pellegrino et al., 1975, p. 82). Approximately 1,350 handicapped students were provided with employable skills through special vocational programs. In the third year of an occupational education program, handicapped students are placed in industries for special on-the-job training. After unpaid training, the employer usually hired the students as regular employees.

Many vocational educators are reluctant to accept handicapped students in their classes because they generally lack training in dealing with the handicapped (Pellegrino et al., 1975). Regular teacher education programs do not prepare vocational educators for work with the handicapped. Courses in special education methods are only offered at the graduate level in most colleges. Vocational educators need special education college courses and inservice training in modifying their courses and methods of teaching the handicapped vocational skills. This training should be incorporated in the curriculum and certification requirements of vocational educators (Tindall, 1975).

Some teaching techniques that work with the handicapped have been identified and teachers are being trained to use them (Tindall, 1975). Through individualized instruction the handicapped student is

able to perform at his/her own level. Handicapped students are reassured by selected activities requiring a short time to finish and ones they are able to complete (Griffith, 1977).

Vocational educators are getting some training in how to teach handicapped students effectively but not what to teach them (Tindall, 1978). Skills which the handicapped student can learn to use in a job have not been identified. These skills need to be identified so educators can help handicapped students become independent employable adults. "Educating the handicapped is a cooperative venture calling for maximum use of vocational and special education, rehabilitation, employers, and community resources" (Tindall, 1978).

Rehabilitation

Rehabilitation is "the restoration of the handicapped to the fullest physical, mental, social, vocational, and economic usefulness of which they are capable" (Bridges, 1946, p. 13). Rehabilitation restores the handicapped individual's rights and dignity by providing guidance and therapy, drugs and mechanical aids, and vocational training (Ford & Dyer, 1971). The great majority of the handicapped can benefit from rehabilitation to the extent of achieving a life of some independence--especially with early treatment.

Also, by hiring the handicapped we greatly improve our national economy. Approximately 20% of the nearly 75,000 persons rehabilitated by agencies in 1958 had been receiving public assistance at a total cost estimated at 13 million dollars. The cost for rehabilitation of these individuals is also estimated at 13 million dollars. The cost

is the same but now these people are working and it is estimated that in the first year after rehabilitation this group will earn about 25 million dollars (Allan, 1960). For each dollar spent by the federal government in rehabilitation programs, "the rehabilitated man or woman of today will pay back at least five dollars in federal income taxes alone during the remainder of his work life" (Arthur, 1967, p. 26).

Rehabilitation centers and sheltered workshops provide training, job experience, and some placement services for handicapped individuals. To get an overall picture of the handicapped client as rehabilitation begins, a counselor will become aware of what kind of person the client is, what his expectations are in life, and what his relationship is to his family, community, and job. Then, exercising and training activities are provided to meet his needs. Rehabilitation services usually continue as long as the person is improving (Betts, 1977).

After a period of training, the handicapped person may be placed in either a sheltered workshop or regular employment. Selective placement is a process of matching the physical, psychological, technical, and social skills of a handicapped client to a job (Twomey, 1975). The success of the handicapped individual in the job depends on his being properly placed according to his qualifications and the job requirements (Brolin & Kokaska, 1974). Successful placement opens the door for future training and employment of other handicapped individuals.

In a report by the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped in 1970, it was found that some two million Americans require sheltered or home-bound employment with about 18,000 handicapped

workers employed by Goodwill Industries (Ford & Dyer, 1971). The amendments to the Rehabilitation Act required that a study be done on the role of sheltered workshops in rehabilitation and employment of handicapped individuals (Role of Sheltered Workshops, 1976). A sample of 400 sheltered workshops of all sizes, various types of certifications, and those serving major disability groups were studied. The following results were found. In 1975, there were 2,755 certified workshops and over 410,000 persons were served in all workshops annually. Clients generally work about 30 hours per week usually for less than minimum wage and few benefits. In the average workshop, there is one staff member for every five clients. The majority of staff members are non-professionals (Role of Sheltered Workshops, 1976, pp. 11-12).

The study gathered information which gives a picture of the workshop clients. The individual most likely found in a sheltered workshop has a mental or emotional disorder or retardation, has lower than a high school education, and most are single and live with their families. Of the handicapped clients, 53% are disabled by mental retardation. Only one-fourth have completed high school or the equivalent. Most of the handicapped clients of the sheltered workshops "believe they are being prepared for competitive employment and will be placed in the near future" (Role of Sheltered Workshops, 1976, p. 12). In the study it was found that workshops place only 10% of the clients served in one year. An increase in placement services in sheltered workshops is needed so handicapped individuals can become self-sufficient. Cooperation among education, rehabilitation, and

employment service personnel may raise the success of vocational rehabilitation of the handicapped.

Conclusion

The number of physically and mentally handicapped individuals in America is estimated at between 25 million and 40 million people (Louvriere, 1976). According to a 1978 report made by the Oklahoma State Employment Office, there are 98,844 employable handicapped individuals in Oklahoma between the ages of 18 and 64 (Kuhlman, 1979). Of these handicapped individuals, 59,896 are employed. The figures are larger according to a 1970 census report (One in Eleven, 1975). In Oklahoma in 1970, there were 184,594 non-institutionalized individuals with disabilities for six months or more between 16 and 64 years old. In 1970, only 74,847 of these individuals were employed or in the armed forces. In Oklahoma, 12.2% of the population is disabled compared with only 9.3% of the national population. Oklahoma has a large number of employable handicapped individuals but few are employed. Many of these may not be prepared for employment because more than 60% of these disabled in Oklahoma have less than a high school education (One in Eleven, 1975).

By identifying the problems that handicapped employees have in their jobs, the educational needs of other handicapped individuals seeking employment can be determined. Becoming aware of the effect of employment of the handicapped individual on the family can help rehabilitation counselors, vocational educators, and employers in working with the handicapped. The study of problems of the handicapped

employee and the effect of his employment on the family will provide information for preparing other handicapped individuals for similar employment.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

Selection of the Subjects

The subjects of this study were 35 individuals employed in home economics-related jobs in metropolitan areas of Oklahoma. The employees were identified as handicapped by their employers who had responded to a previous study on the employment of the handicapped. Those employers (40) in Oklahoma City, Tulsa, and Stillwater who reported they had handicapped employees were sent a letter describing the present study (Appendix A). The employer was asked to assist in the present study by showing a letter about the study to employees they had identified as handicapped. The letter to the employee asked for their participation in an interview concerning problems in their job (Appendix B). As requested, some employers returned the list of employees' names and addresses who were willing to be interviewed. Employers who did not respond were contacted by telephone to request further assistance. Many of these employers did not have handicapped employees at this time. Personal visits were made to some businesses to set up interviews. All of the employees contacted were interviewed because of the small number of names received.

Development of the Instrument

An interview schedule was developed by the author to determine

the employment problems and attitudes of the handicapped employee and whether these problems affect the functioning of the family (Appendix C). Most of the questions were open-ended so the attitudes and opinions of the handicapped individual could be clearly expressed. Some of the questions requested a yes or no answer and an explanation for the response. The instrument was made up of three sections.

The first section was developed to obtain information about demographic characteristics. Questions asked for the following background information: age, sex, marital status, with whom the person lives, educational level, and other educational or occupational training.

The second section collected employment information. Information asked for included: The type of job, the job responsibilities, hours and pay, changes in the job, problems in the job, attitudes toward the job and employer, the treatment by their employer and others with whom they work, job satisfaction, job performance, and suggestions for preparation of other individuals seeking a similar job.

The third section of the interview schedule asked about their family, the members of their family they live with, their involvement with their family, the family's influence on their employment decision, their reason for getting a job, and the effect of their employment on themselves and on the family. Those individuals who live with their family were asked a separate but similar set of questions as those who live alone or with others.

Validity

The interview schedule was reviewed by the three masters thesis committee members of the author. The members of the committee read

over the questions and made suggestions for changes. Some questions were added and some words were changed to gain the information needed in a manner which the handicapped employee could understand.

The modified interview schedule was pretested with three handicapped employees who worked in three different jobs near Stillwater. After the employee completed the interview he/she was asked if there were questions he/she did not understand or which he/she did not want to answer. Changes in wording were necessary so questions would be understood by individuals at a low reading level. A special education instructor assisted the author in making these wording changes.

The advantages of the use of the personal interview outweigh the disadvantages because of the group being studied and the information being collected in this study. The use of the interview method costs more and requires more time, which will limit the sample number and geographic area. Another disadvantage of the interview method is that the respondent may answer the question as he thinks the interviewer expects him to answer.

The information collected by an interview is advantageous because the information is more correct and spontaneous (Parten, 1966, p. 79). The interviewer can control who answers the questions, can collect other information about the personality and environment, and can ask sensitive questions after rapport has been established. During the interview, questions can be adapted to the educational level of the respondent when necessary for their understanding. For these reasons, the personal interview method was selected for us in this study.

Adminstration of the Instrument

Those employers who had handicapped employees willing to participate in an interview were contacted to set up a time and place for the interview convenient for the respondent. Personal interviews were conducted at the business where the person was employed during October, 1979.

Before beginning the interview, the respondent was told about the research of the interviewer, the purpose of the interview, and the information which would be asked in the interview. Nothing was said to the employee about his/her handicap because some employees did not feel they were handicapped. The respondent was reminded he/she would remain anonymous. Those respondents who could read and understand the interview schedule were given a copy to follow along during the interview. The respondent was asked whether he/she had any questions before questioning began.

All the questions on the interview schedule which applied to the respondent were asked by the author. The author interviewed all the respondents in a similar manner and recorded the responses as completely as possible. Questions which were not understood by the respondent were asked in a slightly different way and more information was requested for some questions. At the end of the interview, the respondent was again asked whether he/she had any questions. An interview took 20 to 30 minutes to complete.

Analysis of Data

The data were analyzed for frequencies and percentages according

to the statistician consulted; no other analysis would have provided further information because of the small sample.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Description of Subjects

The 35 subjects of the study were handicapped employees in home economics-related jobs in Oklahoma City, Tulsa, and Stillwater. The characteristics of the subjects who participated in the study are presented in Table I.

The respondents ranged in age from 15 to over 65 years, with the largest number (31%) falling in the 15-24 year category. The number in each age category decreased as age increased. Only one respondent was still employed at over age 65. There were 20 females (57%) and 15 males (43%) represented in the study.

Of the respondents, 16 were married (46%) and 16 were single (46%). The remaining three respondents (8%) were divorced, widowed, or separated. A majority of the respondents (74%) indicated they lived with their family. The other respondents lived alone (14%) or with others (12%).

The educational level of the respondents ranged from fifth grade level to college graduates. Of the respondents, 37% were high school graduates. A majority of the subjects (51%) indicated a level of education below that, including 31% high school, not graduates and 20% less than high school education. There were four respondents (12%) with college degrees.

TABLE I
 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SUBJECTS
 (N=35)

Variable	Classification	N	%
Age	15-24 years	11	31
	25-34	9	26
	35-44	7	20
	45-54	5	14
	55-64	2	6
	65 and over	1	3
Sex	male	15	43
	female	20	57
Marital status	married	16	46
	single	16	46
	other (divorced, widowed, separated)	3	8
I live with:	family	26	74
	alone	5	14
	others	4	12
Educational level	less than high school	7	20
	high school, not graduate	11	31
	high school graduate	13	37
	college degree	4	12
Children	no children	19	55
	1 to 3 children	11	31
	4 or more children	5	14
Other training	workshops, vocational, other training	12	34
	on-the-job training	9	26
	no special training	14	40

The majority of the subjects (55%) had no children. Of the remaining respondents, 31% had one to three children and 14% had four or more children. Of the respondents, 40% indicated having no special training other than school work. The remaining respondents indicated their training as workshops, vocational, other training (34%), or on-the-job training (26%).

The subjects' handicap was determined by the employer who identified the employee as handicapped. The employee was not asked to identify his/her handicap because many did not feel they were handicapped. A majority of the respondents (49%) were identified as slow learners, including some employees identified as mentally retarded. Of the remaining respondents, nine (26%) were hard of hearing, deaf, or had vision problems, five (14%) had physical handicaps, and four (11%) had language handicaps--speech difficult to understand. A distribution of the subjects' handicaps as perceived by their employer is shown in Table II.

Job Characteristics of the Subjects

A tabulation of the job characteristics of the subjects is presented in Table III. Most of the subjects were employed in hospitals (48%) and school lunch programs (37%). Other businesses where subjects were employed included a restaurant (6%), a child care program (6%), and a nursing home (3%).

A majority of the subjects (63%) were in jobs with responsibility for food preparation, food service, and/or kitchen cleanup. The remaining respondents had job responsibilities in housekeeping (14%),

laundry (6%), and other (17%), including clerical or secretarial work, maintenance, and personnel instruction.

TABLE II
 SUBJECTS' HANDICAPS AS PERCEIVED BY
 THEIR EMPLOYER
 (N=35)

Handicaps	N	%
slow learner	17	49
hard of hearing deaf, vision	9	26
physical--feet, arms back	5	14
language--speech difficult to understand	<u>4</u>	<u>11</u>
Total	35	100

The length of time the subjects had worked at their job ranged from one week to 33 years. A majority of the subjects (48%) had worked from one to five years. Those subjects who worked less than one year and more than ten years had 20% in each category. There were 12% of the respondents in the six to ten year category.

TABLE III
 JOB CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SUBJECTS
 (N=35)

Variable	Classification	N	%
Job category	school lunch program	13	37
	hospital	17	48
	restaurant	2	6
	child care	2	6
	nursing home	1	3
Job responsibilities	food preparation, service, cleanup	22	63
	housekeeping	5	14
	laundry	2	6
	other	6	17
Length of work at this job	less than 1 year	7	20
	1-5 years	17	48
	6-10 years	4	12
	more than 10 years	7	20
Salary per month	less than \$300	8	23
	\$300 - \$499	7	20
	\$500 - \$749	18	51
	\$750 and over	2	6
Hours worked per week	10 - 30 hours	12	34
	31 - 40 hours	21	60
	over 40 hours	2	6

The salary of the respondents ranged from less than \$100 to more than \$750 per month, with the majority (51%) in the \$500-\$749 per month range. The percentage of respondents in the remaining categories were: less than \$300 (23%), \$300-\$499 (20%), and \$750 and over (6%). The subjects worked from 10 hours to over 40 hours per week. The majority

of the subjects (60%) worked 31-40 hours per week, with 18 (51%) working 40 hours. Of the remaining subjects, 34% worked 10-30 hours and 6% worked over 40 hours per week.

Job Satisfaction of the Subjects

The satisfaction of the subjects in their jobs was determined by their answers to questions concerning what they like most and least about their job and employer, how they feel they are treated by their employer and others, their feelings about their job and job performance, and whether they have changed jobs in the last six months. Respondents appeared to be satisfied with their job, as examination of Table IV shows.

A majority of the respondents (52%) stated they like their job or a specific task they perform on their job. Another 31% responded that they liked meeting people or that they liked the people with whom they worked. The remaining 17% gave other responses which included: schedule of working hours, pay, and working conditions. Most of the respondents (43%) said there was nothing they did not like about their job. Of the remaining respondents, 23% did not like a specific job task and 34% gave other responses. The other responses were varied and included: evaluating other workers, working conditions, not enough work to keep me busy, not what I always want to do, hard to get caught up, philosophy of others, no contact with people, people bothering me while I work, and not enough pay.

The majority of the respondents (69%) liked their employer because he/she was nice, kind, understanding, and fair. The remaining

TABLE IV
 JOB SATISFACTION OF THE SUBJECTS
 (N=35)

Variable	Classification	N	%
What do you like most about your job?	working with people, people I work with	11	31
	like my job, specific job task	18	52
	other response	6	17
What do you like least about your job?	specific job task	8	23
	other response	12	34
	nothing	15	43
What do you like most about your boss?	like boss, nice	24	69
	other response	11	31
What do you like least about your boss?	nothing	31	89
	other response	4	11
Do you feel your boss treats you differently from others you work with?	my boss does not treat me differently	30	86
	my boss does treat me differently	5	14

TABLE IV (Continued)

Variable	Classification	N	%
Do you feel others you work with treat you differently?	others do not treat me differently	35	100
	others do treat me differently	0	0
How do you feel about your job?	like job, enjoy job, it's fine	25	71
	it's alright, OK, like it sometimes	10	29
Do you feel you are doing as good a job as you can?	I feel I am doing a good job: -because I try hard, I do my best	18	52
	-sometimes, I need improvement	4	11
	-for other reasons	13	37
Have you changed jobs in the last six months?	I have not changed jobs in the last six months	33	94
	I have changed jobs in the last six months	2	6

respondents (31%) gave the following other responses: Cooperative and helpful, tells me I do good work, places everyone according to their ability, good supervisor, lets me work on my own, his/her approach, admire and respect him, and easy to get along with. A great majority of the respondents (89%) stated there was nothing they did not like about their employer. The other four responses (11%) included: He is impatient, pushy, he changes dates of meetings, and she has pets (favorite employees).

In response to the question, "Do you feel your boss treats you differently from others you work with?" a majority (86%) of the respondents felt their employer did not treat them differently but the same as others. Of the remaining respondents, 14% felt their employer treated them differently than others because of the things he/she said or because he/she made them work more. All 35 respondents (100%) felt that others did not treat them differently but that they got along well with others. No one responded that others treated them differently.

A majority of the respondents (71%) appeared to like their jobs. This was shown by the following responses: I like the job, I enjoy work, the job is fine, I am satisfied with my job, and I feel good about my job. The remaining respondents (29%) gave responses including: the job is all right, fair, OK, and sometimes I like it, sometimes I don't. All of the respondents felt they were doing as good a job as possible. The majority of the respondents (52%) thought they were doing a good job because they tried hard and they did their best. Of the remaining respondents, 11% felt they were doing a good job sometimes or they need improvement, and 37% gave other reasons. Other

reasons these respondents felt they were doing a good job included: I get my work done and help others, I put in extra time, I get compliments on my work, I am secure in my knowledge of the job, and it's a living.

A great majority of the respondents (94%) had not changed jobs in the last six months. Of these respondents, six had worked less than six months, with this being their first job. Of the remaining respondents, only two (6%) had changed jobs in the last six months.

Employment Problems of the Subjects

To determine whether the respondents were having employment problems, the respondents were asked questions concerning changes in their job, difficulty finding a job, difficulty in their job, and whether part of their job was hard. According to the responses in Table V, the majority of the respondents seemed to be having no employment problems.

A majority of the subjects (60%) stated no changes had been made in their job. The remaining 40% said changes had been made. Some of the changes mentioned include: new and better equipment, increased wages, changes in specific job task, and help from others in their job.

A great majority of the respondents (80%) stated they had no problems finding a job. Of the remaining respondents, 9% had problems finding a job related to their handicap and 11% had problems not related to their handicap. The problems respondents had in finding a job included: No jobs available where I applied, I did not speak much English, I did not pass the physical exam, and the business said their insurance would not let me work.

TABLE V
EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS OF THE SUBJECTS
(N=35)

Variable	Classification	N	%
Have changes been made in your job?	changes have been made	14	40
	no changes have been made	21	60
Was it difficult for you to find a job?	I had no problems finding a job	28	80
	I had problems related to handicap	3	9
	I had problems not related to handicap	4	11
Are you having any difficulties in your job?	I am not having difficulties in my job	31	88
	I am having difficulties related to handicap	2	6
	I am having difficulties not related to handicap	2	6
Is there any part of your job that is hard for you?	no part of my job is hard for me	24	69
	part of my job is hard because of my handicap	6	17
	part of my job is hard because of problems besides my handicap	5	14

A great majority of the respondents (88%) stated they were having no difficulties in their job. Of the remaining respondents, 6% were having difficulties in their job related to their handicap, and 6% were having difficulties not related to their handicap. The difficulties respondents stated they were having in their job are walking and standing a lot, trying to see in a dark equipment room, and working with and talking to certain people.

Of the respondents, a majority (69%) stated no part of their job was hard for them. Of the remaining respondents, 17% said part of their job was hard because of their handicap and 14% said part of their job was hard because of other problems. Some of the problems mentioned by these respondents included: The specific job task, communicating with others, lifting heavy equipment, walking and standing a lot, and seeing and hearing when using the equipment.

Family Involvement in the Employment Decision

The family's involvement in the respondent's decision to get a job was determined by answers to questions concerning how they get to work, their family, encouragement by their family and others for their getting a job, and their reasons for getting a job. Those respondents who lived with their family were asked similar questions as those who lived alone or with others, although their responses are analyzed separately. The family seemed to play an important role in the respondent's employment decision, as indicated by Table VI.

Most of the 35 respondents (40%) drive themselves to work. Of the remaining respondents, 26% walk to work, 26% are driven to work by a family member, and 8% ride a bus or van to work.

TABLE VI
FAMILY INVOLVEMENT IN THE EMPLOYMENT DECISION

Variable	Classification	N*	%
How do you get to work?	I drive myself	14	40
	I walk	9	26
	I ride a bus or van	3	8
	I am driven by a family member	9	26
Live with family: What members of your family do you live with?	spouses and/or children	17	65
	parents and/or siblings	9	35
Did your family encourage you to get a job?	my family did encourage me to get a job	13	50
	my family did not encourage me to get a job	13	50
Did anyone else encourage you to get a job?	others encouraged me to get a job	8	31
	no one else encouraged me to get a job	18	69
Why did you decide to get a job?	money, to help family	13	50
	wanted to work, job experience	9	35
	other response	4	15

TABLE VI (Continued)

Variable	Classification	N*	%
Live alone or with others: How often do you see your family?	I see my family at least once a month	8	89
	I see my family less than once a month	1	11
Did you family encourage you to get a job?	my family did encourage me to get a job	6	67
	my family did not encourage me to get a job	3	33
Did anyone else encourage you to get a job?	others encouraged me to get a job	4	44
	no one else encouraged me to get a job	5	56
Why did you decide to get a job?	money, to help family	6	67
	like my work, want to work	3	33

*N=26 for those who live with their family; N=9 for those who live alone or with others.

Of the 26 respondents who lived with their families, 65% lived with a spouse and/or children and 35% lived with their parents and/or siblings. Thirteen (50%) of those living with their family responded that their family did encourage them to get a job and 13 (50%) said their family did not encourage them to get a job. A majority of the respondents (69%) stated no one else encouraged them to get a job. Of the remaining respondents, 31% said others encouraged them to get a job.

Half of the respondents (50%) who lived with their family gave the responses to earn money and a need to help their family as their reason for getting a job. Of the remaining respondents, 35% wanted to work or wanted job experience and 15% gave other reasons for getting a job. The other reasons given were: Because the job was available and because their parents work at a similar job.

Of the nine respondents who live alone or with others, 89% stated they saw their family at least once a month and 11% (only one respondent) saw their family less than once a month. A majority of the nine respondents (67%) who live alone or with others were encouraged by their family to get a job. Of the remaining respondents, 33% were not encouraged by their family to get a job. Of these nine respondents, 56% stated no one else encouraged them to get a job and 44% stated others did encourage them to get a job.

A majority of the respondents who live alone or with others (67%) gave the response to earn money or a need to help their family as reasons they decided to work. The remaining three (33%) respondents said they got a job because they like that type work or because they wanted to work.

Effect of Employment on the Family
and the Subject

The effect of employment of the subject on the family and themselves was determined by responses to questions concerning changes the family made when the subject began working, things the subject or family gained because they were working, and things the subject or family gave up when they began working. Those respondents who lived alone or with others were not asked questions about what their family gained and gave up when the subject began working. The responses by those who lived with their family were analyzed separately from those who lived alone or with others. As indicated in Table VII, the family and the subject appear to be effected in a positive way by the subject's employment.

Of the 26 respondents who lived with their families, 73% stated their family did not have to make changes when they began working, while 27% stated their family did make changes. Some of the changes respondents said their family made were: Family members had to help at home and children had to get themselves ready for school, my family had to provide my transportation to work, and my family had to move.

A great majority of the respondents who lived with their families (92%) felt they had gained something from their work. Only one respondent (8%) said he had not gained anything from his work. The things respondents said they had gained were: Personal things (31%), including self pride, friendship, independence, and learning to get

TABLE VII
EFFECT OF EMPLOYMENT ON THE FAMILY
AND THE SUBJECT

Variable	Classification	N*	%
Live with family:			
Did your family have to make changes when you began working?	my family did make changes	7	27
	my family did not make changes	19	73
Have you gained anything from your work?	I have gained personal things	8	31
	knowledge of job	10	38
	money--possessions	6	23
	I have not gained anything	2	8
Has your family gained anything because you are working?	my family gained personal things	4	16
	money--possessions	10	38
	my family did not gain anything	12	46
Did you have to give up anything when you began working?	I gave up social and personal activities	9	35
	I gave up other things	3	11
	I gave up nothing	14	54

TABLE VII (Continued)

Variable	Classification	N*	%
Did your family have to give up anything when you began working?	my family gave up things	5	19
	my family did not give up anything	21	81
Live alone or with others:			
Did your family have to make changes when you began working?	my family did make changes	1	11
	my family did not make changes	8	89
Have you gained anything from your work?	I have gained		
	personal things	3	33
	knowledge of job	3	33
	money--possessions	2	23
	I have not gained anything	1	11
Did you have to give up anything when you began working?	I had to give up things	2	22
	I did not give up anything	7	78

*N=26 for those who live with their families; N=9 for those who live alone or with others.

along with others; knowledge of the job and job skills (38%); money and material possessions (23%). Of the 26 respondents who lived with their families, 46% stated their families had not gained anything because they were working. Of the remaining respondents, 16% stated their families had gained personal things, including pride in the subject, and the ability of family members to get along better and depend on each other; 38% stated their families had gained money and material possessions.

A majority of the respondents who lived with their families (54%) stated they did not give up anything when they began working. Of the remaining respondents, 35% said they gave up social and personal activities and 11% said they gave up other things, including another job, being close to family, and their farm. The majority of the respondents who lived with their families (81%) stated their families did not give up anything when they began working. The remaining five respondents (19%) said their families gave up things, such as time with the subject, change of lifestyle, less help from the subject at home, and their farm.

Of the nine respondents who lived alone or with others, the majority (89%) stated their families did not make changes when they began working. Only one respondent (11%) stated that her family made changes because her children had to get themselves ready for school when she first began working.

A great majority of the respondents (89%) felt they had gained something from their work. The things which the respondents said they had gained were: Personal things (33%), including relationships

with others; knowledge of the job and job skills (33%); and material possessions (23%). Only one respondent felt he had not gained anything from his work. Of the respondents who lived alone or with others, the majority (78%) stated they did not give up things when they began working. The remaining two respondents (22%) stated they gave up time with their families and another job when they began working at their present jobs.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

The objectives of this study were: (1) to develop an interview schedule to collect information from handicapped employees concerning (a) personal demographic information, (b) education and training of the handicapped employee, (c) the type of home economics-related job in which the handicapped individual is employed, (d) changes in the job, (e) job satisfaction and performance, (f) employment problems of handicapped individuals, (g) their families and encouragement by the families to get a job, and (h) the effect of their employment on their families; (2) to obtain the names of handicapped employees who are willing to participate in an interview; (3) to test the interview schedule with a small urban sample of handicapped employees in home economics-related jobs; and (4) to analyze the responses to determine in what types of home economics-related jobs handicapped individuals can find employment, problems employees have in their jobs which are related to their handicap, the type of schooling or training which prepared the employees for their jobs, changes that have been made to help the employees adjust to their jobs, and the effect of their employment on their families; and (5) to provide information about the study to others interested in handicapped employees.

The sample was composed of 35 handicapped employees in home economics-related jobs in Oklahoma City, Tulsa, and Stillwater. The sample was identified by employers who responded to a previous survey on employment of the handicapped. The sample was made up of 15 males and 20 females between the ages of 15 and 72. The majority of the sample lived with their families and had no children. An equal number of subjects were single and married. The sample was mainly made up of persons who had less than a high school education.

The interview schedule was composed primarily of open-ended questions, which included the following sections: Demographic information, employment information, and family information. The interviews were conducted during October, 1979. The data were analyzed only for frequencies and percentages because of the small sample size.

Most of the subjects were identified as slow learners by their employer. The majority of the sample worked in jobs requiring home economics skills in food preparation, food service, and cleanup in hospitals and school lunch programs. All of the subjects received at least minimum wage, except the students who were on a special work program. A majority of the sample was working full time.

Discussion

This study indicated that the majority of handicapped employees in the businesses sampled were slow learners. The employers who participated in a previous study from which this sample was obtained reported the slow learner as the most frequent handicap of their employees (Callsen, 1979). The other handicaps for which there

were a large number of employees included: Difficulty in hearing, need for guidance, limited vision, and speech which is difficult to understand. These handicaps were of a similar percentage in the present study.

The majority of the sample was employed in hospitals (48%) and school lunch programs (37%). Hospitals had the largest number of handicapped employees as identified by employers in the study on employment of the handicapped (Callsen, 1979). The second most frequent number of handicapped workers were employed in school lunch programs. As reported by Hartlage (1966), employers who hired a larger number of employees were more receptive to hiring the mentally handicapped. The research findings of this author were in congruence with Hartlage (1966), in that the majority of the employees studied were mentally handicapped (slow learners) and were employed in large businesses.

The income level of most of the employees in this study was at minimum wage or above. Although the average handicapped person has a much lower income than the total population (Facts About Handicapped People, 1977), the difference may be caused by federal regulations which put certain requirements on employers who receive federal funds. Many of the hospitals and school lunch programs in this study received federal funds.

In this study a majority of the subjects (51%) had not completed high school. This low level of education among the handicapped is confirmed by a 1970 census report. According to the report, approximately 60% of the estimated seven million handicapped children in the

United States do not receive appropriate educational services (General Accounting Office, 1974). Reasons for the lower educational level of the subjects are: (1) some of the subjects were high school students, (2) at the time the subject became handicapped there may not have been educational programs available, and (3) some of those who did not speak English well were educated in other countries.

Because of recent legislation, vocational educators, including home economics teachers, are having handicapped students placed in their classes. Many handicapped individuals have not received the appropriate vocational training and education necessary to gain employment (Phelps, 1977). Although teachers are being trained in techniques for teaching the handicapped, many teachers have not been prepared for working with the handicapped (Pellegrino et al., 1975; Tindall, 1978).

Strickland and Arrell (1967) concluded from their study that it can be determined what jobs mentally retarded youth can perform and training can be obtained in these job skills. The skills have not been identified which handicapped students can learn and use to obtain jobs. Through this study, skills have been identified which home economics teachers can teach their handicapped students to prepare them for employment in certain home economics-related jobs. The skills which the handicapped can learn and use are: Food preparation, food service, kitchen cleanup, housekeeping, and laundry.

The sample appeared to be satisfied with their job as a majority of the respondents reported they liked their job. Attitudes toward the handicapped by employers and others are at times barriers to employment. The subjects in this study were not experiencing problems

with attitudinal barriers. A majority of the subjects felt their employer treated them the same as others. All 35 subjects felt they were not treated differently by others, with many reporting they got along well with others. A DuPont study reported similar findings. Very little difference was found between the ability of the handicapped and non-handicapped to work in harmony with supervisors and fellow employees (Hiring the Handicapped, 1976).

The subjects appeared to be having no problems in their jobs. A majority of the subjects reported no changes had been made in their jobs. The remaining subjects reported changes in equipment, wages, and the job task. Sears (1975) reported that most companies stated adjustments are minimal at low cost. A majority of the subjects had no problems finding a job. One of the respondents who had problems finding a job stated that the businesses had told him their insurance would not let them hire him. Increase in insurance rates was one of many reasons employers give for not hiring the handicapped (Sears, 1975). There is no provision in workmen's compensation insurance policies which penalize employers for hiring handicapped employees (Angel, 1969). Most of the subjects were having no problems in their jobs. All of the subjects felt they were doing a good job. As reported in several studies (Barshop, 1959; Garner, 1978; Hiring the Handicapped, 1976) employers report that their handicapped employees rate average or higher on job performance as compared with other employees.

The family appeared to play an important role in the subject's decision to get a job. If the family fails to provide an atmosphere

of warmth, acceptance, and encouragement for the handicapped person, the family may damage the individual's later adjustment, especially in employment (McDaniel, 1976). A majority of the subjects were encouraged by their families to get a job, and many got a job to help support their families. Merritt (1963) reported that parents influenced their handicapped child's success in a job or in finding a job and effect his attitude toward his job.

The subjects and their families seemed to have been affected positively by their being employed. The handicapped person, as well as those in the community, have been found to benefit from their employment experience (Betts, 1977).

The conclusions drawn in this discussion apply only to the sample studied. Generalizations to other groups can not be made because of the limitations of the sample.

Limitations

This study was limited by several factors because the interview method was used. The sample number was small because of the cost and time involved in doing interviews. The location from which the sample was chosen was limited to urban areas of Oklahoma--Oklahoma City, Tulsa, and Stillwater--to lessen travel costs.

Another limitation of the study was the sampling procedure. The sample was chosen from handicapped employees working for employers who participated in a previous study on employment of the handicapped. The sample was further limited because of the small number of individuals who were identified as handicapped and who were willing to

participate in an interview. All employees who were identified were interviewed.

Finally, the sample was limited to handicapped individuals employed in jobs requiring home economics skills. Those businesses that had the most handicapped employees working in these jobs were hospitals and school lunch programs from which a majority of the sample was taken.

Recommendations

The author developed the interview schedule for testing during the research and recommends the following change. Some of the questions require rewording so they will be more clearly understood by subjects at a low reading level and who speak or read little English.

The author recognizes further research which is necessary for a better understanding of the problems of handicapped employees. Recommendations for further study are: (1) a survey of handicapped employees who work in small businesses in rural areas of Oklahoma and (2) a survey of employers who no longer have handicapped employees, to determine why these employees left the job.

The author provides the following recommendations for the use of the information collected. Recommendations to home economists and others interested in working with the handicapped include: (1) teach handicapped students skills in food preparation, food service, kitchen cleanup, housekeeping, and laundry; (2) gain the cooperation of businesses in the community who would provide students with part-time jobs and on-the-job training; and (3) work with the families of handicapped students to obtain their support and encouragement for the student's gaining job skills and independence.

A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Affirmative action to employ handicapped people: A pocket guide. The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, D.C., 1977.
- Allan, W. S. Rehabilitation as a community responsibility and challenge. Journal of Rehabilitation, 1960, 26(4), 23-25.
- Angel, J. L. Employment opportunities for the handicapped. New York: World Trade Academy Press, Inc., 1969.
- Arthur, J. K. Employment for the handicapped. Nashville, Tennessee: Abingdon Press, 1967.
- Barsch, R. H. The parent of the handicapped child. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas Publishing, 1968.
- Barshop, I. Policy and practice in hiring impaired workers. Journal of Rehabilitation, 1959, 25(6), 23-25.
- Betts, H. B. Latest on helping the handicapped "We have come a long way." U.S. News and World Report, January 31, 1977, 82, 61-63.
- Boyer, E. L. Public Law 94-142: A promising start? Educational Leadership (Journal of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development), 1979, 36(5), 298-301.
- Bridges, C. D. Job placement of the physically handicapped. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946.
- Brolin, D. & Kokaska, C. Critical issues in job placement of the educable mentally retarded. Rehabilitation Literature, 1974, 35(6), 174-177.
- Buscaglia, L. The disabled and their parents: A counseling challenge. New Jersey: Charles B. Slack, Inc., 1975.
- Callsen, M. S. Employer acceptance of handicapped workers with home economics skills. Unpublished report, 1979. (Available from Department of Home Economics Education, Division of Home Economics, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK., 74074.)
- Clelland, R. Section 504: Civil rights for the handicapped. Arlington, Virginia: American Association of School Administrators, 1978.

- Education for all handicapped children act. Public Law 94-142, a free appropriate public education for all handicapped children. National Clearinghouse Rehabilitation Training Materials, Oklahoma State University, reprint, 1978.
- Facts about handicapped people. The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, D.C., 1977.
- Ford, C. W. & Dyer, F. C. The handicapped--one of our largest minorities. America, 1971, 124, 284-286.
- Garner, C. All they need is a chance. DuPont Context, 1978, 7(1), 15.
- General Accounting Office. What is the role of federal assistance for vocational education? Comptroller General of the United States, Washington, D.C., December, 1974.
- Griffith, J. R. Mainstreaming EMR students. Illinois Teacher of Home Economics, 1977, 21(2), 72-74.
- Halloran, W. D. Handicapped persons: Who are they? American Vocational Journal, 1978, 53(1), 30-31.
- Hartlage, L. C. Receptivity of employers to hiring mentally retarded and ex-mental patients. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1966, 13, 112-114.
- Hewett, S., Newson, J., & Newson, E. The family and the handicapped child. Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1970.
- Hiring the handicapped: Facts and myths. The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, D.C., 1976.
- Humphreys, R. R. Being disabled in America. National Clearinghouse Rehabilitation Training Materials, Oklahoma State University, reprint, 1978.
- Kuhlman, J. Personal communication. Stillwater, Oklahoma, March 7, 1979.
- Louviere, V. Making it easier to hire the handicapped. Nation's Business, June, 1976, 64, 50.
- Martin, E. W. Individualism and behaviorism as future trends in educating handicapped children. Exceptional Children, 1972, 38(7), 517-525.
- McDaniel, J. W. Physical disability and human behavior. New York: Pergamon Press, 1976.

- Merritt, T. E. Goodwill placement plan proves successful in influencing the employer to hire. Journal of Rehabilitation, 1963, 29(4), 12-14.
- Olshansky, S. Employer receptivity. Journal of Rehabilitation, 1961, 27(5), 35-36.
- One in eleven: Handicapped adults in America. A survey based on 1970 U.S. census data. The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, D.C., 1975.
- Parten, M. B. Surveys, polls, and samples: Practical procedures. New York: Harper and Brothers, Publishers, 1966.
- Pellegrino, J. P., Comi, J. J., Mente, P., Munden, H., & Brown, L. T & I for the handicapped? You've got to be kidding. American Vocational Journal, 1975, 50(2), 78-83.
- Phelps, L. A. The expanding federal commitments to vocational education and employment of handicapped individuals. Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded, 1977, 12, 186-192.
- Posner, B. Employment. In J. Wortis (Ed.), Mental retardation and developmental disabilities. New York: Brunner/Mozel Publishers, 1974, 230-248.
- President's committee on employment of the handicapped. Washington, D.C., 1977.
- Role of sheltered workshops. Performance, March, 1976, 10-16.
- Rusalem, H. Engineering changes in public attitudes toward a severely disabled group. Journal of Rehabilitation, 1967, 33, 26-27.
- Sale, D. Affirmative action: As the consumers see it. Performance, May, 1977, 7-10.
- Salzberg, T., Wine, D., Seacat, G., & D'Unger, E. Employers' attitudes toward hiring the emotionally handicapped. Journal of Rehabilitation, 1961, 27, 18-19.
- Sarason, S. & Doris, J. The education for all handicapped children act (Public Law 94-142): What does it say? The Exceptional Parent, 1977, 7(4), 6-8.
- Sears, J. H. The able disabled. Journal of Rehabilitation, 1975, 41(2), 19-22.
- Section 504 and the new civil rights mandates. National Clearinghouse Rehabilitation Training Materials, Oklahoma State University, (reprint from AMICUS, September, 1977), 1978.

- Sinick, D. Placement training handbook. Office of Vocational Rehabilitation, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1962.
- State committee organization and financing guide. The President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, Washington, D.C., 1964.
- Strickland, C. G. & Arrell, V. M. Employment of the mentally retarded. Exceptional Children, 1967, 34, 21-24.
- Tindall, L. W. Breaking down the barriers for disabled learners. American Vocational Journal, 1975, 50, 47-49.
- Tindall, L. W. Education for all handicapped persons: A mandate for the new year. American Vocational Journal, 1978, 53, 26-29.
- Twomey, W. F. Placement of the severely handicapped. West Virginia: Second Institute on Rehabilitation Issues Research and Training Center, 1975.
- Wacker, C. H. Breaking the competitive employment barriers for blind people. Journal of Rehabilitation, 1976, 42, 28-31.
- Williams, C. A. Is hiring the handicapped good business? Journal of Rehabilitation, 1972, 38(2), 30-34.
- Wright, G. N. Employer's practices in hiring physically impaired workers. In Rehabilitation Research, the University of Wisconsin, Madison, 1968, 536-539.
- Yuker, H. E. Attitudes as determinants of behavior. Journal of Rehabilitation, 1965, 31(6), 15-16.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

LETTER TO EMPLOYER REQUESTING ASSISTANCE
IN CONTACTING EMPLOYEES

September 1, 1979

Dear Employer:

Last spring you completed our survey on the employment of handicapped workers in home economics related jobs which was part of our research project in the Department of Home Economics Education at Oklahoma State University. As another part of our research, we are interested in collecting information from your handicapped employees about their employment problems.

After collecting the employee information, we hope to determine in what types of home economics related jobs handicapped individuals can find employment, the problems employees have in their job which are related to their handicap, the type of training or schooling which prepared the individual for their job, and what changes have been made to help the individual adjust to the job. We will make a report on the information which will be distributed to individuals who work with the handicapped in preparing them for jobs. We are hopeful the report will assist teachers, counselors, and employers in better preparing handicapped individuals for employment.

We are writing to ask for your assistance in setting up interviews with those employees which you have identified as handicapped. We would like you to ask these employees if they would help us with our research by taking part in an interview. Nothing needs to be said about their being handicapped, as this information will be kept confidential.

We would like you to share with these employees the attached letter which gives information about our study. Please ask employees who are willing to participate in an interview to fill out a name and address form. Please include your name and the business name and address at the top of the form and return all forms to us in the envelope provided. We appreciate your assistance in our survey of handicapped employees.

Sincerely,

Margaret S. Callen

Margaret S. Callen, Ph.D.
Project Director
Dept. of Home Economics Education

Susan Russell

Susan Russell
Project Assistant

Enclosure

APPENDIX B

LETTER REQUESTING EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION

September 1, 1979

Dear Employee:

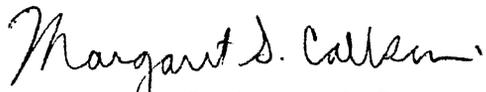
At Oklahoma State University, we are doing a research study on people who work in jobs like yours. For our study, your boss told us about his business, the work of his employees, special qualities of his employees, and training needed by people looking for a job in his business.

We would like to find out what difficulties you are having in your job. We need you to take part in an interview. During the interview, you would be asked about problems in your job, what you like about your job, changes in your job, training for your job, and about your family and what they have done to help you with your job. Your boss said he would help us by showing you this letter about the study.

We are asking you to take part in our study because you have qualities which we are interested in. You are not required to take part in this study. Taking part in an interview is your choice and will not cause you to lose your job. The information you give us will not be seen by anyone else. You will be identified only by a number which will be removed when we look at the data.

If you would like to help us, please fill in your name and address on the form which your boss has. Your boss will return the form to us and we will contact you to set up an interview. We thank you for your help.

Sincerely,



Margaret S. Callsen, Ph.D.
Project Director
Dept. of Home Economics Education



Susan Russell
Project Assistant

APPENDIX C

EMPLOYEE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

ID Number _____

Employee Interview Schedule

Instructions:

Introduce yourself, the project, and the interview. Thank the person for his participation. Remind the person that he will remain anonymous. Ask if there are any questions before you begin.

1. Would you mind telling me how old you are? yes ___ no ___
If yes, ask alternate question. _____
2. Sex: male ___ female ___
3. Are you: married ___ single ___
other (divorced, widowed, or separated) ___
4. Do you live: with your family ___ alone ___ with others ___
5. What is the last grade you finished in school? _____
6. Besides school work, have you had any other training such as on-the-job training, internships, vocational training, or sheltered workshop? yes ___ no ___
7. If yes, what kind of training did you get? Where did you get your training? What subject did you study? _____

8. How has your school work or training helped you in your job?

9. What is your job and what do you do in your job? _____

10. How long have you worked here? _____
11. Would you mind telling me how much you are paid each month after taxes? yes ___ no ___ If yes, ask alternate question.

12. How many hours a week do you work? _____

13. Have you changed jobs in the last six months? yes _____ no _____
If yes, in what kind of job did you work before? _____

14. Have changes been made in your job which have helped you adjust to your work? changes have been made _____ no changes have been made _____ changes are needed but have not been made _____
15. What changes have been made or should be made? _____

16. Was it difficult for you to find a job? yes _____ no _____
If yes, what problems did you have? _____

17. Are you having any difficulties in your job? yes _____ no _____
If yes, what are they? _____

18. What do you like most about your job? _____

19. What do you like least about your job? _____

20. What do you like most about your boss? _____

21. What do you like least about your boss? _____

22. Do you feel your boss treats you differently from others you work with? yes _____ no _____ Explain your answer _____

23. Do you feel others you work with treat you differently? yes _____ no _____ Explain your answer _____

24. How do you feel about your job? _____

25. Is there any part of your job that is hard for you? yes____
no____ Explain_____
26. Do you feel you are doing as good a job as you can? yes____
no____ Why or why not?_____
27. What would you tell others to do to get ready for a job similar
to yours?_____

Now I have some questions about your family and about what changes you and your family have made since you began working.

28. Do you have children? yes____ no____ If yes, how many boys
and girls and what are their ages?_____
29. How do you get to work?_____
30. Does someone else bring you to work? yes____ no____ If yes,
who?_____

If the person answered question 4 as below, ask the following questions. If not, go to question 41.

If you live with your family:

31. Some families have a mother, a father, daughters and sons, or
a husband and wife, or sisters and brothers, and other relatives.
What members of your family do you live with?_____
32. Do you do certain jobs at home? yes____ no____ If yes, what
are they?_____
33. Did your family encourage you to get a job? yes____ no____
How?_____
34. Did anyone else encourage you to get a job? yes____ no____
How?_____

35. Why did you decide to get a job? _____

36. Did your family have to make changes when you began working?
 yes _____ no _____ If yes, what changes did they make? _____

37. Have you gained anything from your work? yes _____ no _____
 If yes, what? _____

38. Has your family gained anything because you are working?
 yes _____ no _____ If yes, what? _____

39. Did you have to give up anything when you began working?
 yes _____ no _____ If yes, what? _____

40. Did your family have to give up anything when you began working?
 yes _____ no _____ If yes, what? _____

- If you live alone or with others:
41. How often do you see your family? _____
42. Did your family encourage you to get a job? yes _____ no _____
 How? _____

43. Did anyone else encourage you to get a job? yes _____ no _____
 How? _____

44. Why did you decide to get a job? _____

45. Did your family have to make changes when you began working?
 yes _____ no _____ If yes, what changes did they make? _____

46. Have you gained anything from your work? yes____ no____
If yes, what? _____

47. Did you have to give up anything when you began working?
yes____ no____ If yes, what? _____

Close the interview, thank the person, and answer any other questions the person might have. Put additional comments at the bottom of this page.

VITA²

Susan Jeanette Russell

Candidate for the Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: THE EMPLOYMENT OF HANDICAPPED INDIVIDUALS IN HOME
ECONOMICS-RELATED JOBS AND ITS EFFECT ON THE FAMILY

Major Field: Family Relations and Child Development

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Clarksville, Arkansas, July 17, 1956, the
daughter of Mr. and Mrs. John A. Russell.

Education: Graduated from Springdale High School, Springdale,
Arkansas, in May, 1974; received Bachelor of Science in
Home Economics degree from the University of Arkansas, Fayetteville,
Arkansas, May, 1978; completed requirements for
the Master of Science degree at Oklahoma State University
in December, 1979.

Professional Experience: Graduate research assistant, Home
Economics Education, Oklahoma State University, September,
1978 to December, 1979.

Professional Organizations: American Home Economics Association,
National Council on Family Relations, Phi Upsilon Omicron.